

## Imaging in nanomedicine: A multidisciplinary challenge

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### SUMMARY

About twenty years ago, the application of nanotechnology to biomedical issues gave rise to a new research field called nanomedicine. In nanomedical research, a wide spectrum of scientific skills is involved, ranging from the physico-chemical characterisation of new nanocomposites, to their set-up as therapeutic/diagnostic tools for preclinical/clinical application. Imaging techniques play a major role in each of these phases, providing information not only on the nanoconstructs' characteristics, but also on their interactions with the biological environment, *in vitro* and *in vivo*. The present brief note summarizes the information potential offered by multiple imaging techniques: integrating different scientific competences is crucial for their proper application and this may be envisaged as an exciting multidisciplinary challenge in nanomedical studies.

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Nanomedicine is a relatively recent research field (Weber, 1999) and deals with the application of nanotechnology to biomedical purposes (Wagner *et al.*, 2006). This challenging target implies the involvement of a wide spectrum of scientific skills, from the physico-chemical characterisation of new nanoproducts, to their set-up as therapeutic/diagnostic tools and their preclinical/clinical application. In each of these phases, imaging techniques are of great importance and, especially in the last decade, they have widely been used, being present as working tools in about 25% of the published articles on nanomedical subjects (Malatesta and Calderan, 2020).

High-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HR-TEM), cryo-TEM and atomic force microscopy (AFM) are the techniques of choice to visualize and characterize isolated nanocomposites (Jain and Thareja, 2019; Rozo *et al.*, 2020; Venkateshaiah *et al.*, 2020); they are however scarcely useful in nanomedical research, where the main scope is to investigate the interactions of nanoparticles with the biological environment.

Imaging techniques in nanomedicine must enable the visualization of the nanoconstructs inside the biological milieu, ensuring an optimal preservation of the structural features and the spatial relationships of nanoparticles with the tissue components, while preserving, in the case of *in vivo* studies, the viability and physiological function of the organism.

Thus, light microscopy and conventional TEM and scanning electron microscopy (SEM) have become irreplaceable tools for *in vitro* and *ex vivo* studies to track nanoparticles in cells and tissues, with special reference to their extracellular and intracellular distribution, cell uptake mechanisms, and interaction with cell organelles and the extracellular components.

The most used technique to visualise nanoparticles in tissues and cells is fluorescence (especially confocal) microscopy. This technique has widely been applied to test the targeting efficacy of various nanocarriers aimed at treating different pathological conditions, among which cancer (e.g., Zhou *et al.*, 2011; Lei *et al.*, 2015; Avvakumova *et al.*, 2016; Singh, 2017; Ricci *et al.*, 2018; Drijvers *et al.*, 2019), infectious diseases (Alukda *et al.*, 2011) or neuromuscular diseases (Costanzo *et al.*, 2019; Guglielmi *et al.*, 2019). Frequently, the intracellular detection of nanoparticles at fluorescence microscopy has been associated with flow cytometry, which makes it possible to quantify the nanoparticle uptake in single-cells samples (Koren *et al.*, 2012; Wang *et al.*, 2015; Yahia-Ammar *et al.*, 2016; Liang *et al.*, 2017; Alnasser *et al.*, 2018). Confocal fluorescence microscopy was also combined with steady-state fluorescence spectroscopy (Damalakiene *et al.*, 2013), spectrofluorometric analyses (Das *et al.*, 2015; Fiorentino *et al.*, 2015), traction force microscopy (Wei *et al.*, 2018), or magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) (Azhdarzadeh *et al.*, 2016; Vu-Quang *et al.*, 2016).

In the attempt to overcome the diffraction limit of light microscopy, super-resolution microscopy has also been used in nanomedical research (Jin *et al.*, 2018; Pujals and Albertazzi, 2019; Qiu *et al.*, 2020; Rojas-Sánchez *et al.*, 2020), but TEM and SEM remain the most effective high-resolution techniques to obtain detailed information on the interactions between nanocomposites and the biological components (e.g. Liu *et al.*, 2015; Costanzo *et al.*, 2016a, 2016b; Marinozzi *et al.*, 2017; Siow *et al.*, 2018; Codullo *et al.*, 2019). In addition, electron energy loss spec-

troscopy (Boyles *et al.*, 2015), electron tomography (Guarnieri *et al.*, 2017), or inductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometry (Mohamed *et al.*, 2017) have been associated with TEM, to improve its informative potential with compositional and quantitative data.

Original combinations of different imaging techniques have been designed to obtain a more comprehensive view of the biological interactions of nanoparticulates: bright-field microscopy has been used in parallel with fluorescence microscopy and TEM (Mannucci *et al.*, 2020) or SEM and AFM (Skopalik *et al.*, 2014); phase contrast microscopy and confocal fluorescence microscopy were performed together with TEM (Abedin *et al.*, 2018) or SEM (Jenkins *et al.*, 2015); dark field microscopy was used in association with hyperspectral imaging (England *et al.*, 2013).

Moreover, well-established histochemical methods were successfully employed to detect specific nanoparticles that could hardly be visualized at light or electron microscopy after conventional staining procedures. The classic Prussian blue staining was used to label iron-containing nanoconstructs (Chen *et al.*, 2011; Zhu *et al.*, 2012; Jiang *et al.*, 2014; Chica *et al.*, 2016; Skopalik *et al.*, 2014); silica gold nanoshells and citrate gold nanoparticles were detected and quantitatively assessed in spheroids of different cancer cells *in vitro* after silver-enhancement staining (England *et al.*, 2013); using the Alcian blue staining, Carton *et al.* (2019) were able to label hyaluronic-acid-based nanoparticles at TEM, and described their endocytosis, organelle interaction and degradation; diaminobenzidine photo-oxidation allowed performing correlative studies at light and electron microscopy of the intracellular fate of fluorescently-labelled nanoparticles (Malatesta *et al.*, 2012, 2014, 2015; Costanzo *et al.*, 2016b).

*In vivo* imaging techniques such as MRI, optical imaging (OI) or positron emission tomography (PET), and computed tomography and ultrasonography allow detecting nanocomposites in the whole organism and are especially suitable for longitudinal studies on their biodistribution, targeting and clearance. MRI has been mostly applied to investigate magnetic nanoparticles (Yu *et al.*, 2017; Mannucci *et al.*, 2018; Tay *et al.*, 2018; Deh *et al.*, 2020), while OI proved to be especially suitable to track fluorescently labelled nanoconstructs (Rampazzo *et al.*, 2012; Bruns *et al.*, 2017; Esposito *et al.*, 2017; Tapeinos *et al.*, 2017; Mannucci *et al.*, 2020; Moreno *et al.*, 2020). *In vivo* PET imaging is the technique of choice to monitor radiolabelled nanoparticles (Belderbos *et al.*, 2020; Gawne *et al.*, 2020; Kollenda *et al.*, 2020; Nagachinta *et al.*, 2020), while ultrasound analysis and fluorescence-mediated tomography have been used to detect highly echogenic nanocomposites (Perera *et al.*, 2017; Wu *et al.*, 2020). Similarly to microscopy techniques, *in vivo* imaging methods have been combined in multimodal protocols (Zhang *et al.*, 2014; Konopka *et al.*, 2018; Tam *et al.*, 2020; Wang *et al.*, 2020). For instance, MRI was associated with OI (Mannucci *et al.*, 2017), near-infrared fluorescence (Qiu *et al.*, 2018), PET imaging (Madru *et al.*, 2018), or micro-computed tomography and contrast-enhanced ultrasound (Sulheim *et al.*, 2018), while PET was combined with OI (Boschi *et al.*, 2011).

The simultaneous application of microscopy techniques and *in vivo* imaging allows obtaining comprehensive information of the biological interactions of the nanocomposites from the cellular to

the organismic level (e.g., Zhou *et al.*, 2011; Wang *et al.*, 2015; Vu-Quang *et al.*, 2016; van der Meer *et al.*, 2017; González-Gómez *et al.*, 2019; Esposito *et al.*, 2017; Mannucci *et al.*, 2017, 2020); however, the integration of different scientific competences, from physics to chemistry, biology and medicine is necessary to obtain reliable and conclusive results. Thus, the proper use of imaging techniques in nanomedical research may be envisaged as a stimulating multidisciplinary challenge.

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